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ABSTRACT

Challenging educators and students to look at both the importance of secondary reading and the vital differences between secondary level and elementary level reading demands, strategies, competencies, and attitudes, the papers in this monograph indicate the broad range of theoretical issues in secondary reading that must be examined as a prelude to organizing methods courses for secondary teachers. Papers include "What Is Secondary Reading" (Carl B. Smith and Larry Mikulecky); "A Critical Summary of Rumelhart's Interactive Model of Reading" (William Diehl); "Instructional Implications of Rumelhart's Model" (Jerome Harste); "Cognition and Comprehension" (Carl B. Smith); "Questions and Advance Organizers as Adjunct Aids: Implications for Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools" (Richard T. Vacca); "The Relationships of Attitudes, Interests, Motivations, and Habits to the Teaching of Reading" (Larry Mikulecky); "Secondary Reading Programs: Factors that Bring Teachers and Students Together" (James Mills); "A Competency Based Program for Subject Area Teachers" (Charles T. Mangrum); and "In Perspective" (Leo Fay). After most papers in this monograph, summaries of reactions and discussions are provided. (RS)

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Secondary Reading: Theory and Application

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Monographs in Teaching and Learning
School of Education
Indiana University
Number 1, September, 1978

Indiana University's Language Education Departments are pleased to announce the initiation of Monographs in Language and Reading Studies. They will serve a number of purposes, including the publication of papers based on conference proceedings, research and development reports, and papers of special interest to teachers and other professionals working in the language education areas.

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Monograph in Language and Reading Studies

Secondary Reading: Theory and Application

The 1978 Lilly Conference on Secondary Reading

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Monographs in Teaching and Learning
School of Education
Indiana University
Number 1, September, 1978

THE 1978 LILLY CONFERENCE ON SECONDARY READING

Interest in the reading competency of secondary students is reflected by the legislated requirement, now in effect in many states, of a course in reading for secondary teacher certification. In reaction to this interest and the need for teacher trainers to prepare themselves to teach such courses, the Lilly Endowment, Inc., commissioned Indiana University to sponsor a three-day conference designed to bring together independent and private college educators to learn about and discuss theoretical aspects of reading, as applied to secondary school students. This conference, April 6, 7 and 8, was attended by more than 60 faculty members who had some responsibility for teaching or planning secondary reading methods courses at various colleges and universities.

A variety of theoretical issues were presented by noted educators. Topics were discussed in-depth by participating faculty members. The Lilly Conference was, then, a vehicle for the exchange of viewpoints and ideas and for the presentation of recent theoretical and research advances in secondary reading.

We are especially grateful to the Lilly Endowment, Inc., for making the Conference, and this publication, possible.

Carl B. Smith, Conference Director
Larry Mikulecky, Associate Director

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Introduction

Papers published in this Monograph indicate the broad range of theoretical issues in secondary reading that must be examined as a prelude to organizing methods courses for secondary teachers. The intention of this book is to challenge educators and students to look at both the importance of secondary reading and the vital differences between secondary level and elementary level reading demands, strategies, competencies and attitudes. Because of such differences, the teaching of reading at the secondary level cannot be approached in the same manner as the teaching of reading at the elementary level.

The Lilly Conference on Secondary Reading was designed to be a working conference. The speakers were present for the entire conference and shared ideas on all topics presented. Many of the participating faculty members served as reactors to and discussion leaders for the presentations. When possible, papers were sent to these reactors before the conference and formal reactions were prepared. Three small groups provided reaction and discussion after most presentations. After most papers, summaries of reactions and discussions in each group are provided. The purpose of these reaction/discussions is to capture the flavor of the conference as various discussion groups examined implications of formal presentations and attempted to apply theoretical generalizations to specific teaching situations.

In its national survey on reading, the National Assessment of Educational Progress concluded that between 1971 and 1975, elementary students (9-year-olds) improved in competency, while middle school students' (13-year-olds) and high school students' (17-year-olds) competencies remained the same or dropped. Since the National Assessment indicates that teaching of elementary school reading is better than ever before, reading problems of secondary students cannot be attributed to poor elementary teaching. Instead, the reading declines in secondary schools may be due to the changed natures of the reading tasks, the students, and the teaching methods at the secondary level. An understanding of the important differences related to reading at the secondary level is necessary to plan successful curriculums and teacher-training programs. This volume is a step to that understanding.

William Diehl
Issue Editor

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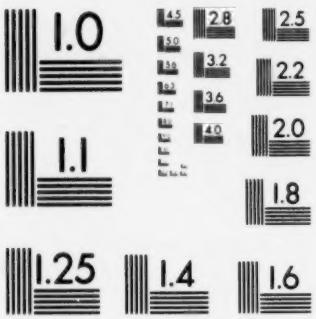

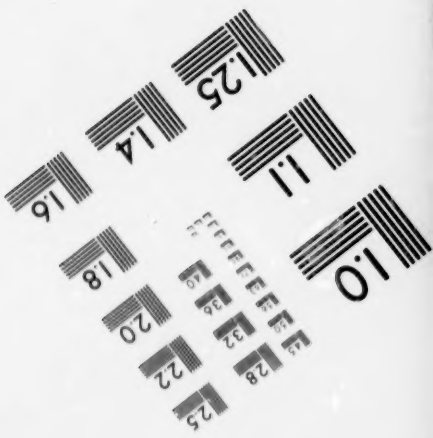

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should be emphasized, whether it is in pleasure books, serious books, or anything else.

Another participant recalled that one of the oldest types of teaching is glossing: the teacher starts reading an assignment, bringing in his/her pertinent experiences in an effort to get students interested. Of course, this method cannot be used to build interest in all cases.

Another participant recalled an article discussing the sociological patterns of reading. At one time, only the "aristocracy" went to school. Persons born at the right time and place were automatically rich and intellectual. Thus, the motivation was built in. This notion gave way to the "meritocracy" who believed that if one worked hard, good things would come automatically. This "middle-class work ethic" is probably part of everyone present, he suggested. Individuals learned that if they do something now they will be rewarded later, and, again, motivation was no problem. Now, he warned, teachers are faced in the classrooms with "egalitarians" who believe in a free and equal society. The only way to stimulate students in this group is through their value systems. He suggests that rather than wasting time on having them reading what the teacher thinks is fun, they must be allowed to make their own choices. He also recalled Carlsen's (1972) development of stages. This theory states that children go through certain stages of interests that parallel reading development. At any given chronological age, the child has certain interests that are typical of that age. From his experience, the best success has come after giving students something he knew they would like and something he would personally recommend.

This participant then asked the group to recommend five books that would attract and hold teenagers at each grade level. He asked how many of the group had actually read the books recommended. His own suggestions were S. E. Hinton's *Outsiders*, or *Go Ask Alice*. Using these books he thought, would bring the teachers into the student's value system. For science class, he recommended using science fiction as a vehicle that motivates reading. Another participant recalled a successful bazaar at her school at which students and teachers buy, sell, or trade books.

One participant emphasized that one aspect not being discussed was sexism both in the books and in the reading models. In elementary school, the best readers are nearly always girls, and once students get to junior high school they seldom see a man read. Reading, she felt, is only something that Mom does in her spare time because Dad is too tired when he comes home from work. She stressed that coaches never read or even use a book in front of their players. Some of her students had said that they were going to be coaches and would never use a book. This, she believes is the attitude being instilled in children.

GROUP TWO

John J. Smith

Dr. Mikulecky's presentation added balance to the conference. Teachers need to work just as hard, perhaps even harder, on reading attitudes as they do on reading skills. But this admission broaches several questions.

1. How can we really go about working on secondary students' reading attitudes? Is modeling as effective as has been implied? Can we really spend very much time in front of students reading in secondary schools when we have them for only an hour a day?

2. How can we measure students' attitudes toward reading? Do attitude tests give accurate information or do students answer items the way they think they are expected?

3. Can we really work on attitudes by finding out students' interests and dovetailing them into our curriculum? I wonder if we can find out the interests of 100 to 150 students, and even if we do can we remember them? Maybe we should count on finding some common interests for a group of 30 students in a class. Adolescents are interested in themes relating to sex, peer relationships, and self-autonomy. But how much we can connect the schemata students bring to themes to our own subject areas?

4. Is it really possible to change attitudes even if we work at it? I agree that we can help, but I would not be surprised if we did not see a big change in students' attitudes. I believe attitudes change very slowly and the individual teacher probably will not see any effect he or she may have. Just as Dr. Mikulecky believes that working only with reading skills is a superficial approach and that working at reading attitudes is perhaps getting deeper into the problem, I feel that working only with reading attitudes is also superficial. The deeper problem may require work with students' attitudes in general. I believe there is too much apathy among secondary students—not just with their reading—and this is where we need to start.

Georgianna Simon

What factors may account for students' negative attitudes toward reading? If a teacher is concerned about attitudes, what can he or she do? Dr. Mikulecky seemed to make three suggestions, but I wonder if they are sufficient. First, he said teachers need to focus on the uninvolved reader. Second, he believes students' negative reading attitudes grow from their being driven to abandon thoughtful reading as a means of learning. And third, he believes students' negative attitudes toward reading are related to either interest or motivation, not necessarily to lack of reading skills.

Another factor I think should be considered in relation to students' negative attitudes is reason for reading. Is reading just for school? Students also use reading outside of school to bake a cake or build a model airplane, for example. Some people read outside of school to improve their self-images or to gain prestige. Others read to reinforce their opinions or for the aesthetic value. I believe that an individual's reasons for reading grow out of his or her attitudes toward reading in general.

DISCUSSION

The group first considered the problem of collecting reliable information on students' attitudes. It was suggested that information may be collected orally, or if

are frequently used to build student interest. Students are required to assume some responsibility for planing their program of learning experiences and evaluating their performance.

The labs operate full-time with students scheduled in groups of 15 to 20 for two to five days a week depending on need. Students receive reading lab service for six weeks to one year, depending on their progress. All schools conduct inservice and follow-up activities with subject area teachers to coordinate students' work in the reading lab with their work in other classes. Files containing diagnostic information, work samples, and records of progress are kept for each student served.

Evaluation

Annual evaluations of the Communication Skills Improvement Program have been positive. Pre- and post-test scores show that gains made by students in the program are consistently greater than those of norm groups with which they are compared. Attitudes also improve as evidenced from pre- and post-pupil ratings on the Estes Reading Attitude scale (Estes, 1971).

PROJECT CONTENT-COGNITION: READING

Another Cleveland secondary reading program that has been particularly well received is Project Content-Cognition: Reading. With the generous support of the Martha Holden Jennings Foundation, the Cleveland Public Schools recently designed and implemented a comprehensive inservice program combining instruction in reading with instruction in subject matter in grades 7 through 9. The main characteristics of this project are:

1. Emphasis on cognitive skill development;
2. Focus on reading in specific subject matter areas;
3. Use of subject matter teachers in the development of learning packets;
4. Emphasis on not-seriously-handicapped readers;
5. Empahsis on designing individualized exemplary subject-content reading lessons that can be easily used by teachers;
6. Incorporation of evaluatory field-test procedures to obtain highly reliable and practical instructional materials; and
7. Use of videotapes to demonstrate classroom implementation of suggested instructional techniques.

Lesson Preparation

Working together, teachers and reading consultants develop instructional units based on textbook reading assignments. Emphasis is placed on developing subject matter concepts. Reading skills that students will use in developing these concepts are woven into the fabric of the lesson. Difficult words are taught prior to

one is uncertain that a high degree of trust has been established, students can be asked to respond in writing or on IBM cards without giving their names. Role playing interviews with an outsider, taped responses, or completion of open-ended statements were also suggested.

Two points of caution in relation to collecting information on student's attitudes were raised.

1. Reliable information about students' attitudes cannot be collected in a short period of time; a trusting relationship between the teacher and the students must be established first. While a teacher may seem to get off to a slower start by taking the time to assess student's attitudes, once the assessment is completed he/she can begin to group students according to their interests, perceptions, etc., and students will begin to progress quickly. Also, attitude measures themselves can lead to valuable class discussion making them a worthwhile use of class time.

2. A second caution raised related to being prepared to receive some gross or vulgar responses if one really encourages students to respond honestly to attitude measures. Many responses of this type are the students' way of testing whether a teacher means what he/she says, i.e., are they really free to write what they think and not just what is expected of them? It is best not to get upset or judgmental at such responses.

A concern was raised that college instructors should not be too idealistic when talking with preservice or inservice teachers about changing reading attitudes. Reading attitudes, it was agreed, do not change quickly. It may be deceptive for college instructors to leave teachers thinking they need to work on reading attitudes and drastic change can occur. If this perception prevails, teachers may try to work on reading attitudes, but if improvement is not quickly forthcoming, they may abandon work on attitudes altogether.

Taking students' interests into account to improve their motivations and reading attitudes also implies individualization. Many secondary teachers, however, get the impression that they must individualize everything all year long and accomplish it immediately. No wonder many get discouraged. Instead, it was suggested that preservice or inservice teachers need to be encouraged to try individualizing gradually. Also the point was made that some people are confused about individualized instruction in that they think it means every student must have a separate worksheet, etc. Grouping is individualized; sometimes working with a whole class is a form of individualization.

In summary, the point was made that if we are to get secondary teachers to begin working with students' reading attitudes, we must build a philosophical, attitudinal, or conceptual basis, and that the time spent to do so is well worth it.

GROUP THREE

R. Scott Maricle

I was amazed earlier in the conference to hear that on any given day, 25% of

students in secondary schools may not be in school. This may be indicative of the fact that teachers have been guilty of ignoring attitude, at least attitudes toward study and reading. They have been so geared to performance that they lost students. Dr. Mikulecky suggested, in fact, that students are being *driven* to abandon thoughtful reading. What kinds of things do teachers do in school that drive students from thoughtful reading? If we can identify some of the things teachers do that negatively affect attitude, maybe we can propose some ways to stop that. What ways can we generate?

DISCUSSION

Several participants felt that required book reports produced negative attitudes. Book reports can appear to be punishment rather than an opportunity to share. Students, then, may feel punished for reading books. They can even be driven away from pleasureable, recreational reading.

Television was seen as having an effect on attitude toward reading. Viewers do not have to "work at" getting the story or meaning the way readers have to. On the other hand, television can provide a motivating force in reading. Many students read books based on television programs, such as the *Man from U.N.C.L.E.* series. Several school districts have made excellent use of special programs. The Chicago *Sun-Times,* for example, released the scripts of two specials—one about the seaman who tried to escape from a Soviet vessel, and one about the Holocaust—to all the schools in Chicago. The *Sun-Times* provided the scripts free, to be used as reading material. The Philadelphia school system built excellent reading lessons around the scripts from the *Missiles of August* and the *Franklin and Eleanor* series. Television and print were intertwined; apparently the students were more enthusiastic about reading the script than viewing the program. This was a good indication of positive attitude. In addition, Philadelphia schools reported gains of up to two years on standardized tests after using these lessons.

One participant stressed the need to change students' attitudes toward school in general. If we change the attitude toward school and what education can do, the other attitudes, such as those toward reading, will automatically improve.

Also stressed was the usefulness of oral reading in bettering student attitudes. One participant described the success he had in getting students enthusiastic about reading by reading orally and then letting the students read orally, as an earned privilege. Reading was seen as something special, as a reward. Another participant cautioned against the misuse of oral reading. Too often, oral reading is a round-robin situation where students are handed something cold and expected to read, to perform. That kind of abuse does not do any good. Students should be given time to prepare for oral reading, so they are at ease with the material. Then they have a reason for reading and reading well.

Another participant felt that students had a poor attitude toward the work ethic and this is reflected in their schoolwork. It was pointed out, however, that a number of secondary students are running gas stations and grocery stores after school. They have lots of responsibility there, but when they get to school, they

are often treated like nine-year-olds. It was suggested that students be encouraged to earn the right to carry out much of the responsibility in the secondary classroom. By building responsibility, teachers build attitude.

Marjorie Loory

Given the nature of our society, I think we would have a very difficult time doing anything about attitude. It is an extremely difficult problem, given the biological changes of our young people, and the way society is structured. So many things are happening—the students are becoming aware beings, they are concerned about themselves and their abilities and relationships. Unless there is a concerted effort, I do not think we will see much change in attitudes.

What can we do? What are ways that we can motivate teachers and teacher-trainers to become motivators of students in reading? To be good role models?

DISCUSSION

Participants generated a number of suggestions:

1. Model in your methods classes what you would have your preservice teachers model for their own students.

2. Talk about what you are reading. For example, "By the way, it was an excellent book. . . " "I couldn't put it down. . . "

3. Assign students to do pleasureable, outside reading. Although assigning pleasureable reading seems like a contradiction, there are many students who are motivated by grades, so if using grades will get them to read more widely, and discover things they like, it is worth doing.

4. Have students keep a "reading journal" for five consecutive days. In the journal, they list the time of day they read, whether the material was content or recreational, plus the page numbers and title, if they want. This motivates some students to become more conscious of their reading and to read more.

5. Have book exchanges. Bring in old books and really play them up. ("This book is great. . . .") One participant who did this found that students soon brought in books on their own to share with her. Real enthusiasm was generated.

6. Make a real effort to show positive attitudes. One participant likened much of teaching to selling—selling ideas, strategies, etc. Your attitude toward what you are selling directly affects whether it is received enthusiastically.

Participants also discussed how the purpose of some aspects of schooling may run counter to the building of positive attitude. Teaching too often involves teaching for a test and using short-term learning. The attitude often is "We're doing this so you can get a good score or passing grade and can get out of here." We do not say "You can get this good score and then go on to things that really

interest you." Unfortunately, we are in a system now that requires *results*. Results mean good test scores. But what are the tests really measuring? Are they measuring the things the students need? Dr. Mikulecky summarized this by saying that curriculum by itself is not key. What is key is curriculum, or competencies, and attitude.

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SECONDARY READING PROGRAMS THAT WORK: FACTORS THAT BRING TEACHERS AND STUDENTS TOGETHER

James Mills

How can secondary schools help students acquire the reading skills they will need in high school and beyond? Staff members in the Cleveland schools have been wrestling with this question for some time now and have developed a number of programs which, we believe, effectively meet the needs of our students. Two of these programs will be discussed in some detail later in this paper. First, however, some background information will be helpful.

CRITERIA FOR PROGRAMS

A variety of approaches to secondary reading have been tried in Cleveland over the past 13 years. In addition programs being used in other systems, particularly in large urban centers were reviewed. Many reading programs that are now conducted in secondary schools across the country were rejected as wasteful and counter-productive. Among our rejections are:

1. Tradtional remedial reading classes—taught as separate entities—usually focusing on word attack and providing no coordination of effort with subject area teachers.

2. Every teacher a teacher of reading programs where subject area teachers waste valuable time overstressing and frequently misteaching reading skills that have little or no relevance to what is being studied.

3. Packaged programs that do not take into account individual learning styles.

4. Assignment of elementary or English teachers to remedial reading classes—thereby confirming in the minds of content teachers the folklore that they have no responsibility for reading.

In our judgment, effective secondary reading programs must be individualized, interest oriented, and closely tied to subject area instruction. They must be

comprehensive with reinforcement coming from all members of the teaching staff. The programs must complement—not intrude upon—subject area instruction. Clearly such programs must have strong administrative support and will function most effectively if they are built on a firm foundation. Among other things, that foundation should include:

1. Setting forth of specific goals for reading on a school-wide or system-wide basis;

2. Assignment of reading consultants to help content teachers effectively fuse reading with content;

3. Assignment of reading personnel to textbook adoption committees as consultants on readability;

4. Providing funds to purchase multi-level reading materials; and

5. Coordination of specially funded programs with the ongoing curriculum.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS IMPROVEMENT PROJECT

The Communication Skills Improvement Project began in Cleveland during the 1971-72 school year. The program grew from the grass-roots, being initiated by a school-wide reading council in one of Cleveland's largest senior high schools. In six years it has expanded to 13 schools, and staff members in several other schools are now seeking an extension of the program to their buildings.

Basic Operation

Reading laboratories have been established in 13 inner city secondary schools—six senior highs and seven junior highs. Approximately 3,000 students in grades 7 through 12 receive corrective and developmental reading instruction in these reading labs. Participation is on a nongraded basis. Many students who receive instruction are selected on the basis of reading test scores and referrals made by teachers and guidance counselors. Others request to participate in the program.

The reading labs are operated under the full time supervision of a reading resource teacher in each school. These teachers use equipment and materials designed to allow for individualization and to permit a variety of instructional approaches. Individual needs are determined through diagnostic testing. Teacher assistants provide reinforcement and individual tutoring for students in the lab to increase the impact of the instruction provided there. In several schools an additional teacher provided by the Cleveland Public Schools works with the reading resource teacher to increase the number of reading services provided in the school.

There is some variation among the project schools in the operation of the reading centers, reflecting the educational priorities identified by the staff and administration. Some schools focus primarily on improving general reading comprehension. Others emphasize improving motivation for reading through the use of high interest, ability level materials, reinforced with individualized instruction. Games

reading so that when they are encountered in the text, they are seen as old friends—not unwanted intruders.

Studies conducted by the Division of Research and Development in the Cleveland Public Schools show that Cleveland students have particular difficulty with certain comprehension skills. Units are planned so that on given days each of these skills will receive particular emphasis. Thus, students are receiving help in reading skill development at the same time that they are learning subject matter.

Each unit developed includes a pre- and post-tests designed to measure students' progress. When units are completed, teachers try them with their classes. Test scores are carefully monitored and provide evidence of lesson effectiveness. Adjustments in instructional plans are made as needed.

Next comes the large-scale testing. Instructional plans are distributed to a new group of teachers who were not involved in the planning. Inservice training in the use of these plans is also provided. Teachers then try the lessons with their classes in what is called the large-scale testing. Following this phase a feedback session provides time when large-scale testers report strengths and weaknesses of instructional plans to unit writers. Final revisions are then made.

Completed instructional units contain a pre-test; an instructional overview listing concepts to be developed, lesson objectives, reading skills to be emphasized and materials to be used; an instructional plan that includes day-by-day instructions to the teacher together with transparencies and worksheets that are needed; and, finally, a post-test. Videotapes are made of segments of units being taught and become part of the complete package.

Inservice Follow-Up

After units are completed, they are disseminated to content teachers throughout the city. Initially, junior high chairpersons meet and materials are distributed and explained. There are follow-up meetings within each building and inservice training is provided for classroom teachers.

Care is taken to show how reading skills are fused with content materials. The Directed Reading Activity, a teacher-directed approach to instruction, is introduced and explained. Teachers are shown how completed instructional units parallel the design of the Directed Reading Activity. Videotaped segments of completed lessons demonstrate the usefulness of this approach in a classroom setting. In subsequent meetings, teachers are helped to build plans for teaching additional lessons using the structure of the Directed Reading Activity.

Evaluation

Results of a one-year evaluation of the project are highly encouraging. Tests developed and administered by the school system show a 40% gain in teacher proficiency in using reading-thinking skill techniques. At the same time, teachers show a high degree of satisfaction with their opportunities to participate in the program. Tests of students using the materials show that with two exceptions, classes achieved the goal of an increase of at least 20% in their comprehension of subject materials.

CONCLUSION

The role of the classroom teacher is to create a learning environment in which each student can grow according to his ability, his maturation level, and his interest.

Both programs described above contain critical ingredients designed to bring teachers and students together for a positive reading-learning experience. Close ties are established between reading and content instruction; reading instruction is fused with concept development, and reading materials are correlated with the maturation level of students. Students become involved in an active, receptive process and learn to comprehend, interpret, and react to what they read.

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James Mills is supervisor of English, Cleveland Public Schools.

A COMPETENCY BASED PROGRAM FOR SUBJECT AREA TEACHERS

Charles T. Mangrum

There are 10 generic competencies that I believe most subject area teachers should have to improve their instruction when they are using reading materials as a medium for developing subject area objectives. This paper will explain how these 10 competencies were identified and how they are developed in undergraduate subject area education majors at the University of Miami.

BACKGROUND

Between 1970 and 1973, members of the Education Committee from the Florida State Legislature were systematically examining the reading achievement test scores of junior and senior high school students currently enrolled in high schools throughout Florida. They were alarmed by the number of students scoring below the national mean achievement. Their concern was communicated to their fellow legislators and during the 1973 session of the Legislature, legislation was passed that required all subject area teacher candidates seeking initial certification in Florida after September 31, 1974, to have a component in the teaching of reading as it relates to their subject area. The legislation was interpreted to mean that those seeking initial certification must acquire competencies, not mere credits, in the teaching of reading as it relates to their subject area. The competencies, however, were not clearly specified.

The legislation created considerable distress in the schools of education in Florida's colleges and universities. It meant that schools of education had to immediately require a competency based reading course for their subject area education majors. Initially, many of Florida's colleges and universities tried to satisfy the law by requiring subject area education majors to enroll in existing courses that focused on secondary and adult reading practices. Until the time of the new requirement, such courses were taken primarily by students who were majoring in reading or English education. These courses were inappropriate for the large number of students who were enrolling from such specialities as science, math, foreign languages, speech and hearing sciences, physical education, art, business education, library science, and so on. The students' resentment toward the new requirement was transferred to the instructors and, combined with their questions about the relevancy of the course content, made teaching during these times very difficult.

Prospectus. This section of the module explains to the subject area teacher why it is important to accomplish the objectives of the module. The terminal and specific behavioral objectives the learner is to accomplish are also included in this section. It ends with a description of the resources and a statement on the time required to complete the module.

Pretest. After the subject area teacher has read the prospectus, he turns to the pretest to determine just what objectives he needs to master. There is one pretest item for each specific objective in the module. If the learner feels he can perform the behavior asked for in a pretest item, he indicates such by choosing YES. If he has any doubt in his mind, he chooses NO. The pretest requires only yes or no responses.

Branching program alternatives for pretest responses. This section is included to provide for the flexible use of the instructional competency module. In this section the subject area teacher learns what he must do to accomplish the specific objectives he has identified for himself. He is directed away from those activities for which he already has competency. In this way the instructional competency module takes into account individual differences found among learners.

Enabling elements. Enabling elements are the training components of the module. Each enabling element contains a list of activities that are designed to help the learner accomplish one specific objective. The first activity always requires the learner to read a *Study Guide* that includes the basic information the student needs to know, relevant to the objective he is working toward. In addition to providing information, the Study Guides also include practicum exercises so that the learner can put his new knowledge or skills to work. The remaining activities in the enabling element are deisgned to develop competency with an individual, small group, or classroom of children.

Post-test. When the learner has completed the activities in a module, he tests his competency using the post-test. The post-test items require some type of performance relative to the module objective. The learner uses the post-test to assess his new competency.

Selected bibliography. Selected references are provided for the student who wants more information or who would like to consult another source for different ideas. The flow chart graphically illustrates the process the student goes through when he uses instructional competency modules.

FIELD TESTING OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL COMPETENCY MODULES

Before the instructional competency modules were used, they were field tested to determine their effectiveness. First, individual preservice and inservice teachers were given the modules and were directed to complete a field trial evaluation form which we provided. Second, the modules were used for directed instruction with groups of preservice and inservice teachers under the direction of a resource person.

The first round of training sessions to meet the certification needs of preservice subject area specialists fell short of expectations. At the University of Miami we recognized that if we were going to live up to the spirit of the legislation we had to find a new way to develop reading instruction competencies in subject area specialists. The search for a new way to help preservice teachers meet the certification requirements began with examination of textbooks, monographs, and journal articles that dealt with teaching content area reading skills to junior and senior high school students and young adults. We visited a number of secondary school reading programs and examined course syllabi from others. We also interviewed reading teachers and subject area teachers to determine just what reading competencies would be helpful to subject area teachers.

The textual material provided a rather extensive list of competencies, many of which were the same as those required of the elementary school teacher. For the most part we found that the reading teachers felt subject area teachers should know everything the reading teachers had learned in their master's level training programs. The subject area teachers who were interviewed rejected a number of competencies identified by reading teachers. In general, the subject area teachers believed that they needed fewer competencies than reading teachers.

As a result of our review of the literature, examination of reading programs and interviews with reading and subject area teachers, we identified 10 basic generic competencies that our preservice subject area teachers must acquire. We believe that when the preservice subject area teachers are able to perform these competencies, they are able to help students read better in content area materials.

TEN GENERIC COMPETENCIES

These statements contain the generic competencies preservice subject area teachers at the University of Miami must acquire.

1. Junior and senior high school students cannot be expected to read materials that are written above their functional reading levels. To avoid frustrating junior and senior high school students with reading requirements they cannot handle, subject area teachers must be able to determine the readability of their subject area materials.

2. Subject area teachers frequently prepare written materials for their students. To avoid creating materials with functional reading requirements beyond their students' abilities, subject area teachers must be able to write materials to specified readability levels.

3. Often a variety of reading materials are used to teach basic concepts in subject area courses. When a variety of reading materials are used, a subject area teacher must be able to match materials with the reading levels of students. To ensure the proper match, the subject area teacher must know how to rapidly determine whether the reading materials are suitable for the students' capabilities.

4. Many reading skills are required for reading subject area materials.

Subject area teachers must be aware of these reading skills and be able to determine which skills students have or have not acquired. To do this they must be able to prepare, administer, and score reading skills tests.

5. Each subject area has its own specialized vocabulary and one of the major responsibilities of teachers is to help students develop and expand understanding of word meaning in their subject areas. To do this, subject area teachers must follow a set of guidelines for developing understanding of word meaning and use appropriate activities for teaching specialized vocabularies.

6. Often, students need help to comprehend subject area materials. The subject area teacher must know the specific comprehension skills for his subject area and how to assess and teach these skills.

7. Subject area materials are written in a variety of styles and with different formats. To help their students read these materials, subject area teachers must teach students how to use the appropriate study strategies for their subject areas.

8. A large number of multisyllable words is one of the characteristics of reading materials. While the teachers are not expected to teach the beginning word recognition skills, they must be able to help their students develop a strategy for pronouncing multisyllable words.

9. Subject area teachers are often confronted with students who know how to read but who are reluctant to read. The teachers need to incorporate into their teaching those techniques that will increase the motivation of reluctant readers.

10. From time to time all subject area teachers will have students in their classes who are underachieving in reading and need special assistance which is beyond the teacher's competency. Teachers must know how to identify these problem readers and where to refer students for the specialized help they need.

INSTRUCTIONAL COMPETENCY MODULES

Once the 10 competencies were identified, we needed a means by which the competencies could be developed. We examined traditional textual materials and decided while they were good for providing basic information, for the most part they did not provide the learner with opportunities for using new knowledge and skills. Consequently, we prepared materials that would provide students with the background information they needed and opportunities to practice using their knowledge and skills. The resultant instructional competency modules are self-instructional packages designed to assist the user in accomplishing certain objectives. An objective consists of what the learner is able to do, know, and/or feel after instruction which he may not have done, known, and/or felt before instruction. Each of the instructional competency modules (see Figure 1) includes the following components:

At the end of each module, each participant completed a field trial evaluation form. These forms were collected and used as guidelines for evaluating the effectiveness of the modules and for making revisions. The modules were evaluated by 1,140 teachers from these subject areas: mathematics, English, physical education, business education, vocational education, art, social studies, music education, chemistry, and economics. The modules also were reviewed by

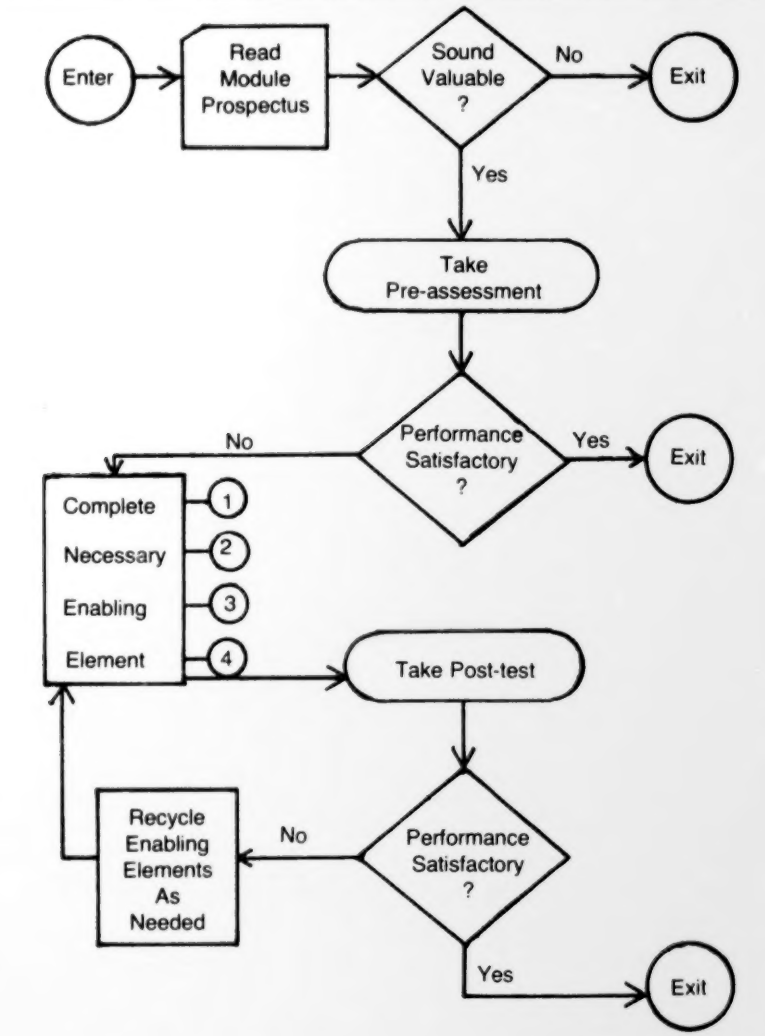

Figure 1. Flowchart of Instructional Competency Modules.

learning disability specialists, reading specialists, directors of federal programs, principals, special educators, department chairmen, a director of a training program for practical nurses, and selected college and university professors. Two national authorities in secondary reading also were asked to evaluate each module.

The field evaluation revealed that the instructional competency modules were useful for developing competencies individually and in groups. The preservice teachers were much less successful than the inservice teachers in acquiring the competencies when they had to use the modules to direct their own learning. Evidently inservice teachers were able to use their own experiences, whereas preservice teachers needed the experiences of a resource person to bring meaning to the activities in the modules.

After the field trial was completed, the modules were revised and used to develop the 10 generic reading competencies in our preservice training program for subject area teachers. The 10 generic competencies in the modules now form the backbone of a course titled Teaching Reading in the Content Area. The modules are used to develop initial competency and in-school practicum experiences to develop proficiency. Each preservice subject area teacher spends two and a half hours beyond initial competency working with junior or senior high school students to develop proficiency with each competency. Our university students are placed in junior and senior high schools where they work under the direction of a reading specialist and a university professor. Approximately 8 to 10 students are assigned to each reading specialist who is a practicing reading teacher in the Dade County Public Schools. The university students are supervised and evaluated by the reading specialist and university professor.

ASSESSING THE COMPETENCIES OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS

We currently assess preservice teachers' competencies in four ways. After they complete the assigned activities in each instructional competency module, they first complete a post-test. Next, competency is evaluated by observation as they work with junior or senior high school students. Third, at the end of the semester, each student has a 30-minute individual oral examination with the professor. At this time the preservice teacher's knowledge and competencies are evaluated. Finally, the student's knowledge, and to some degree his competencies, are evaluated through the use of a comprehensive multiple choice final examination.

Grades are assigned on the total number of points accumulated from the four evaluations. A total of 50 points can be achieved for the 10 post-tests which are taken individually after each instructional competency module is completed. Another 20 points can be added for demonstrating competency with children and 10 points for demonstrating competencies during the individual oral examination. Finally, 20 points can be achieved for performance on a comprehensive multiple choice final examination. Final grades are assigned on the basis of total number of accumulated points. Competency must be demonstrated in all 10 areas or the student is given an incomplete grade regardless of the accumulated points at the end of the course.

COMPETENCY MODULES SUGGESTED BY MANGRUM

I. Outline of Instructional Competency Modules
   A. Prospectus
      1. Rationale
      2. Objective
      3. Resources and time required
   B. Pretest
   C. Branching Program Alternatives
   D. Enabling Elements
      1. Study Guides
      2. Practicum Activities
      3. Field Activities
   E. Post-test
   F. Selected Bibliography

II. Modules for Developing Content Teacher Competencies
   A. Determine readability levels of content area materials.
      1. Use Fry's graph for estimating readability
      2. Textbooks
      3. Articles
      4. Selections with less than 100 words
      5. Others
         a. Syllabus
         b. Tests
         c. Handouts
   B. Prepare Materials at Specified Readability Levels
      1. Alter a selection to a lower readability level
      2. Alter a selection to a higher readability level
      3. Write at specified readability levels
         a. A selection about you
         b. A course syllabus
         c. Test questions
            1. Essay
            2. True/False
            3. Short answer
   C. Determine if content area materials are suitable for a student to read
      1. Select materials
      2. Identify selection(s)
      3. Write questions like you ask
      4. Have student read selection silently—answer questions
      5. Have student read selection orally
      6. Make a decision on suitability
   D. Determine reading skill needs
      1. Identify reading skills in your subject area
      2. Construct reading skills tests
      3. Administer, score, and use to plan instruction

Morrison, C., & Austin, M. C. *The torch lighters revisited.* Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1977.

Sartain, H. W., & Stanton, P. E. (Eds.) *Modular preparation for teaching reading.* Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1974.

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that could be characterized as "knowledge about teaching/learning." The behaviors always fall in the last square of the model—"teaching skills." These effective teachers knew how to communicate, how to motivate, how to assess where a student was and how to help him get to where he wanted to be. This activity makes the point clear. My students realize that they are in the class to develop competencies in teaching skills. The course becomes meaningful.

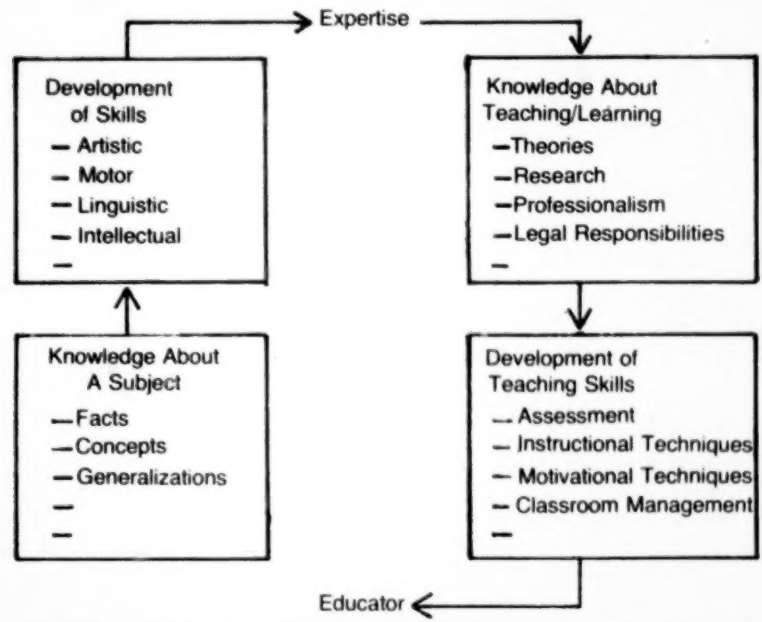

Figure 2. Model of Teacher Behavior.

From that point, I present to the students the range of abilities they can expect to encounter in a class. The students then work in small groups to generate the concepts and skills they think they need to know as content teachers. By doing this, they list the objectives of the course. Objectives generated by the students usually include how to test reading ability, how to assess the difficulty of textbooks, and how to rewrite passages. They generate, in effect, the competencies suggested by Mangrum.

GROUP ONE DISCUSSION

The group generated a list of competencies including motivational skills, assessment skills, vocabulary development skills, questioning skills, ability to adapt material for differing ability levels, ability to apply the subject area to life, and ability to individualize instruction. The group then addressed the question of the most effective ways to develop such skills and competencies.

LIMITATIONS OF THE COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

While we believe the University of Miami reading course for subject area teachers is effective in accomplishing our program objectives, we feel it has some of the same limitations one can expect to find in any competency-based teacher education program. First, it is difficult to specify the teaching behaviors when we know so little about reading and teaching. We have not listed an infinite number of teaching behaviors, but, rather, have chosen to specify broad behaviors needed by teachers. What we have tried to do is to teach subject area teachers to behave in ways that are consistent with generalizations we have obtained from research and practical experience.

Second, there is a danger that preestablished standards will encourage minimal rather than maximum academic performance from students. In some performance-based programs the competencies are set so low that they are attainable by everyone in the program. As a result, the median performance is lowered and the range of performances reduced. We tried to avoid this problem by establishing competencies based on a task analysis of the subject area teacher's role in reading instruction. We have also incorporated a grading system, part of which relies upon curved test scores, to encourage maximum performance from our students.

Third, it is very difficult to obtain agreement on what level of performance constitutes competency. Competency is often in the eye of the beholder and the criteria are as varied as the number of persons who are judging competency. At present we use a percentage criterion for judging competency.

Fourth, competencies are difficult to measure. The knowledge competencies are less difficult to measure because they are easier to specify and can be measured with paper and pencil devices. Performance competencies are more difficult to measure because they require a description of more complex behaviors. Product competencies (how the students perform after treatment) are the most difficult to measure. Presently we are measuring competencies with paper and pencil tests and observations that allow us to get at the knowledge and performance competencies built into our objectives.

The program I have described is a modified performance-based teacher education program. For this program, generic competencies are written in behavioral terms, learners have prior knowledge of the competencies they must achieve, and class instruction is preceded by self-instruction with competency modules and followed by field experiences. The competencies of students are determined by performance. The program does maintain many of the aspects of traditional teacher education such as the three-credit-hour course, semester time limit, and competitive grading system. The marriage of ideas from performance-based teacher education and the traditional model allows us to meet the competency requirements for teacher certification with a manageable program.

E. Teach Word Meanings
   1. Selecting words
   2. Acquiring guidelines for teaching
   3. Selecting activities
   4. Developing word meanings
F. Helping students comprehend
   1. Types of questions
   2. Preparing questions
   3. Answering questions
   4. Developing question answering strategies
G. Help students use study strategies
   1. Improve understanding and prolong retention
   2. SQ3R
   3. PQRST
   4. SQRQCQ
H. Pronouncing multisyllable words
   1. Identify potentially difficult words
   2. Acquire a strategy for pronouncing words
   3. Teach when and how to use the strategy
I. Motivating Reluctant Readers
   1. Intrinsic and extrinsic learners
   2. Affective and cognitive factors that influence motivation
   3. Incorporating motivation factors into teaching plan
J. Identifying and helping problem readers
   1. Characteristics
   2. Correlates of reading failure
   3. Identifying problem readers
   4. Referring and helping problem readers
K. Characteristics of an effective K-12 reading program
L. Evaluating student achievement in the K-12 reading program
M. Identifying teachers' inservice needs
N. Coordinating special services for the reading program
O. Selecting and purchasing reading materials
P. Financing and developing reading programs

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REACTION TO DR. MANGRUM'S PAPER

Editor's note:

At the close of his presentation, Dr. Mangrum asked the three discussion groups to consider two questions: "What reading-related competencies are necessary and are reasonable, given the time constraints of one course, for preservice content teachers?" and "What is the most effective way of developing these competencies?" The designated reactors in the groups—Vivian Ashby; Nora Lee Hoover; M. G. Lee; Donna Patterson; Connie Redick; Jo Ann Schall; Vernon Schertz; and Gwendolyn Trotter—served primarily as discussion leaders. With the exception of Hoover, the reactions were intertwined with the group discussion. For that reason, and with the exception of Hoover's reaction, only summaries of discussions are given here.

Nora Hoover

In Indiana, in the fall of 1978, reading in the content area will be required of all our secondary students. A number of times I have taught a course in reading in the content areas and will describe a few aspects of this course which may be beneficial. Mangrum's book has been used in this course. An important point, however, not adequately covered in that book, entails motivating the preservice teacher from the first day onward. I have developed two techniques to provide this motivation. First I ask the students to specify the behavior of teachers they have had whom they found the most effective. Behavior is specified, as opposed to qualities (e.g., "sensitive"). The students identify the behaviors on index cards, which I collect. I then show them a model (Figure 2).

In their undergraduate major of 30 or 40 hours, the students have first developed knowledge about their subject: facts, concepts, and generalizations. Next, they developed skills, enabling them to think of themselves as artists, historians or scientists—but not teachers. To become a teacher, they must acquire knowledge about the teaching/learning process: theories, research, and so on. Lastly, just as they developed skills in their subject area, they must develop teaching skills: assessment, instructional techniques, and so on. My students and I generate a list of the various skills of a teacher. We then review the cards on which they have written effective teacher behaviors, and we chart each behavior in the appropriate square.

In four years, I have never had any behaviors that describe the teacher as knowledgeable or skilled in a particular content area. I have never had a behavior

Laboratory situations and practicums were stressed as ways of joining lecture with practice. One participant cautioned that field experience could be counterproductive when the cooperating teacher refuses to try the techniques advocated by the student teacher. Another participant, who had encountered the same problem, had success with preservice and inservice teachers in the same class.

One participant had her students prepare "suitability surveys," and vocabulary and comprehension learning packets for various lessons and texts. She encouraged her students to keep these and take them along when they interviewed for teaching positions. The students were generally hesitant to do this, but once they shared the packets with interviewing superintendents, the tone of the interview improved. "It is like an artist bringing his portfolio; it is a demonstrated competency. Rather than tell an interviewer what you can do, you can show him," one person commented.

It was suggested that the last of Mangrum's list of competencies—causes of reading difficulties—be presented first. One participant found it most effective to have students read in the areas of psycholinguistics and psychology because the students gain respect for the area of reading (which often does not happen when beginning with an area like word attack skills).

The group agreed that it is important for all content teachers to have a base level of competencies. After this base level is achieved, differences among content areas could be addressed with other competencies.

It was suggested that a "reading committee" composed of teachers from all the different subject areas could be set up in a school. Mangrum recalled his experience in Illinois in which such a reading committee actually developed the competencies for each content area and even trained the new first-year teachers in these competencies.

A participant asked for advice about how to teach a course when some of the preservice teachers themselves could not adequately read the text for it. Mikulecky suggested that an introspective approach might best be applied in which "the purpose of the course is to make the preservice teachers the best readers that they can be and thus able to apply the same techniques to their students."

GROUP TWO DISCUSSION

The participants were asked to generate a list of competencies for reading at the secondary level. In the 10 minutes available this list was produced:

1. Ability to determine the readability of material, and to match material to the range of students in the class.

2. Ability to define personal belief about the role of the teacher and the role of the student.

3. Ability to deal with subskills of comprehension, especially paragraph meaning and structural analysis of text material.

4. Ability to help students see and understand the purpose for what they are learning.

5. Ability to teach study skills.

6. Knowledge of reasons for having students read, and being able to set goals as a teacher.

7. Knowledge of how to help students develop reading on their own in various subject areas.

8. Knowledge of the organizational structure of printed material in the content area.

9. Ability to make decisions about which concepts are most important; ability to teach and develop those concepts.

10. Ability to identify where a student is on each of five levels—the personal, social, intellectual, psychological, and spiritual levels.

11. Knowledge of both what the students think about reading and what reading specialists think is involved in the reading process.

12. Ability to build a classroom atmosphere where readers/learners may explore and practice reading while learning about themselves in their universe.

The point was made that some of the competencies suggested were actually philosophical in nature; some participants were interjecting philosophy into the approach. The group debated whether it is possible to draw up competencies without first defining the philosophy. It was questioned whether, in 10 minutes or so, the group could establish a philosophical basis on which to build a core of competencies. "A lot of competency people push you into this kind of thinking. I believe, however, in a balance between theory and practice. I don't think you can move into the practice until you have your theory straight," one person commented.

Participants expressed other concerns about competency-based methods. One participant stated,

> It seems he [Mangrum] was looking at the issue very narrowly. He seems to be directing his students to begin to do some things before they really know, "What do I believe? What do I think about what I should be doing? What do I think about myself? and What do I think about what my students should be doing?" They need to know something about themselves first. I think that is much more important than a list of competencies.

Another participant pointed out that Mangrum's competency-based approach was, in a large part, in response to a Florida state mandate. As such, it perhaps had to be defined narrowly. It was also pointed out that it would be impossible to draw up competencies for every inclination and philosophical base given by the teachers of a state. The exchange on this point follows:

"You tell me what you will be receptive to. I am going to package it in a very nice package, and I am going to give it back to you."

"That is exactly what has happened to students all the way from kindergarten through high school. People buy a thing [materials or a program] 'to do at' children."

"I think it's a question of whether we want people who know how to do things or whether we want people who know how to think. The stress on *doing* is why some of the competencies bother me."

"What we are looking for is a person who can look at the world and make decisions, create an environment. I don't know that that can be put on a list of competencies."

The discussion then turned to how one could build a course in secondary reading for content teachers, unless one preestablished a list of competencies to teach. One participant suggested the teacher "combine what they think their needs are with some of the things you think they need. You lead them into forming objectives, then, that you have arrived at together." Another participant suggested drawing up a pretest based on minimal competencies the teacher has identified. Explain to the students that these things have been identified as minimal competencies, discuss them after the pre-test, and design the course around the results of the pre-test. A third participant pointed out that the problem with such mutual approaches was that many preservice content teachers have little background and less interest in reading. A teacher might spend several weeks trying to draw out the preservice teacher, when all the preservice teacher wants is to be taught the competencies, and get out of the course. The specialist in reading would do more good by defining the competencies beforehand and making sure the preservice teachers left the course with at least minimal competencies to deal with reading. Other participants agreed. One participant said:

> Lots of prospective content teachers come into reading classes with nebulous notions about the reading process and reading problems. That is why I see the need for some kind of structure for the competencies we want them to know. Saying that we are just going to let them come in and say what their needs are is unrealistic; I don't think many have thought out what reading in the content areas is. We're going to see more and more students like that, now that reading courses are mandated for secondary teachers. The students take the class because they have to, not because they have special interest in or knowledge about reading.

GROUP THREE DISCUSSION

Initially, the group identified four competencies for content teachers: ability to use readability formulas; knowledge of materials available and how to use them; knowledge of methods available; and knowledge of methods of matching students with materials.

Discussion centered on readability formulas. One participant found that teaching such formulas sets a positive attitude; because of the concrete nature of the task and the results, students enjoy using readability formulas, and find them benefi-

cial in their teaching. Several participants felt it is important to point out to students the fallibility of such formulas. Readability gives only an estimate of reading difficulty. Problems with readability formulas should be pointed out early. One participant had his students do readabilities on a variety of materials. They found Bradbury's *Martian Chronicles* read at a fourth-grade level, while the philosopher Vygotsky was at fifth or sixth-grade level. Unless the students are aware of other influences on reading difficulty, they may totally discount readability instead of viewing it as one method of examining texts. It was pointed out that readability can account for 60% to 70% of text difficulty. There was still a high degree of variance unaccounted for by sentence length, word difficulty, abstraction, concept load, etc.

Student attitude was seen as a problem in developing many of the competencies. One participant said:

> Students start balking when you tell them what they have to do to analyze texts, to count concepts or look for key vocabulary, or to try to determine what elements they want to stress through study guides or organizers. They see themselves as content teachers, and this is just so much more work.

Another participant suggested that it is important to stress that the preservice teachers will not have to incorporate reading skills all the first year; these are competencies, rather, that can be incorporated as the teachers become comfortable with their positions and other responsibilities. Other participants felt that competencies needed to be identified that could and would be used from the first year of teaching. If preservice teachers are discouraged from incorporating reading skills the first year, they might never use them. Universities and colleges need to identify necessary and possible areas of competency to cover in a three-hour course. Also, universities and colleges need to decide whether merely information is being given out or if usable competencies are being developed.

Participants were generally agreed that, in addition to competencies, positive attitudes had to be developed. As one person commented:

> No matter what we teach in a preservice setting, it won't make sense until they have taught a few years. I would go after less competencies and try to engender a positive attitude for how reading relates to learning.

James Mills, director of English for Cleveland Public Schools, stressed the idea of good planning as a way to engender good attitude. He said:

> Positive attitude comes from success. Success comes from planning well. I am not sure "vocabulary development" is a competency. It is if it is taught well. If it is not taught well, it may be an incompetency. Something is a competency when it is done in a meaningful, creative fashion.

Another participant suggested finding ways of gaining the cooperation of the content-area professors. He had found great success with the literature department of his university by stressing the similarities to reading skills in what its faculty members were trying to do. The literature faculty, for example, taught "methods of analysis of prose" which included finding inferences, identifying organizational patterns, and other skills that often are labeled "reading skills." Also, there is an area of literary criticism—the transactional approach—that is quite similar to many of the current views of reading. In the transactional ap-

proach, the reader makes the work. The work is simply inkblots on a page until the reader organizes it and does something with it. Literature involves the individual experience of every reader with the work. This participant found he received much help from the literature department by stressing these areas of similarity.

Other participants emphasized the use of field experience in secondary reading methods courses. "It gives a sense of reality. . . .The students see that the information really is useful and usable," one person said. "It is a learning experience for the supervising teachers as well as for the preservice teachers. I have had several teachers adopt ideas presented by the preservice teachers," another noted.

Suggestions for involving preservice teachers from areas such as art, physical education, and music were discussed. One professor had asked teachers in those content areas to send him copies of reading materials they use in class and had received a large amount of material. When preservice teachers in those areas express doubts about the usefulness of reading in the areas, the professor shows them the reading materials actually being used. This was quite successful in convincing the preservice teachers of the importance of reading in the total curriculum.

IN PERSPECTIVE

Leo Fay

Perspectives is an unusual topic for a paper. In fact, when Carl Smith gave me this topic, I was caught short until I remembered his Jesuit training. If you remember Philosophy 101, you may recall that perspectivism is a concept in philosophy in which the world forms a complex of interacting, interpretative processes in which every entity views every other entity and event from an orientation peculiar to itself. In short, perspectivism is to view events with a systematic bias and hence here I am as a practicing perspectivist, admittedly biased, as soon will become apparent.

As stated elsewhere, the primary purpose of this Monograph and the Lilly Conference was to provide an opportunity to study the reading process and how it develops, so that colleges and universities can meet the new state certification requirements for all secondary teachers to be prepared to teach reading. I suspect that there are those on each of our campuses who would say, "What a sorry state of affairs that colleges now need to be concerned with preparing secondary teachers to teach such an elementary and basic skill as reading." Such statements imply that reading is only an elementary and basic skill and that there was a golden age of literacy somewhere in our past. The papers herein are concerned with achieving higher levels of literacy, and I will attempt to presuade you that the golden age is yet to come.

The truth is that the new certification requirement reflects progress toward the goal of achieving universal functional literacy in our society. Furthermore, as our society continues to become more complex, even higher levels of literacy and a higher rate of participation in post-secondary education will become necessary. This, in turn, will open opportunities for people who have been economically and educationally disadvantaged in the past. Contrary to what we would like to believe, the record of higher education generally in meeting emerging needs of people, whether in education or in other areas, is not particularly good. As is often the case, this change in teacher education was forced upon colleges and universities by outside agencies.

Rather than discussing the dynamics (or lack of it) of change within our institutions of higher education, it would be more profitable to review literacy develop-

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This paper is based on a dinner speech given by Leo Fay at the Lilly Conference, April 7.

ment in this country and to consider in a broader perspective why the secondary schools need to be concerned with the teaching of reading.

Recently Ralph Tyler commented that, according to the best estimates available, the level of literacy in this nation at the time of its independence was a mere 15%. This figure surprises many persons who read the eloquent documents and speeches of the political leaders of that day. But the tradesmen, farmers, and frontiersmen had little need to read and did not. By the time of the War Between the States, this percentage of literacy had grown to a mere 28%. One factor we often ignore in the literacy arena is that a sizable proportion of our population was not permitted the privilege of literacy because they were not free people. And the obvious truth is that we still have not totally overcome the effects of this factor and of the systematic bias that was imposed when these people finally did receive schooling. This is one, the greatest no doubt, but only one of many factors that caused depressed school achievement.

It was not until the first decade of the twentieth century that literacy became an issue in this country. The turn of the century was a period of heavy immigration and the new immigrants were met with suspicion and disdain. People wondered, "Who are these hordes of people with their strange clothes, language, and manners?" Groups such as the Immigration Restriction League were formed and among other things, proposed literacy tests to restrict immigration, especially that from eastern and southern Europe and Asia. Henry Cabot Lodge, a leader in this movement, proposed a bill in Congress in 1896, which was passed but vetoed by President Cleveland, which would allow admission of only those who could read and write their own or some other language. Lodge was frank to say that such testing would "bear most heavily upon the Italians, Russians, Poles, Hungarians, Greeks, and Asiatics, and very lightly, or not at all, upon English speaking immigrants or Germans, Scandinavians, and French." According to Lodge, "The mental and moral qualities which make what we call our race" could be preserved only by excluding "the wholesale infusion of races whose traditions and inheritances, whose thoughts and beliefs are wholly alien to ours and with whom we have never assimilated or even been associated in the past." Similar bills were passed by Congress in 1901 and 1915 and also were vetoed. This was a period when there was no real enforcement of school attendance laws (in those days you did not *compel* an American to do anything), and the idea of intervention programs to do something about illiteracy had little or no support. The public generally was unconcerned.

The Census of 1900 asked the question for each person age 10 and over, "Can this person read and write?" On the basis of a "yes" or "no" response to this question the country was officially listed as 89.3% literate. The records show that 6% of the 17-year-olds in the nation went on to complete high school in 1900. This 6% was a 100% improvement over the 1890 figure.

The next decade (1910-1920) witnessed the first World War and continued strong feelings against the foreign born. The 1910 census reported a 92.3% level of literacy for the country based on the same standard that was applied in the 1900 report. By then 8.8% of the 17-year-olds completed high school. Although some concern appeared for the native born illiterate, no state passed legislation

Once more the Army draft revealed the low level of functional literacy in the country. In May, 1941, an Army directive was issued to reject all men who could not pass a test of fourth-grade reading difficulty. In only six weeks 50,000 men were rejected. By September of that year 144,000 and by March, 1942, 433,000 men—the equivalent of 29 infantry divisions—were refused induction. After that the rule was changed. Late in 1943 illiterates were drafted and assigned to Specialized Training Units (STU's) that had been organized by Paul Witty of Northwestern University to provide literacy training together with the Army's basic training. The Army screened its ranks for rural school teachers who were then assigned to Witty's units. In the World War II draft, 38 out of 1,000 white and 112 of 1,000 black draftees were rejected as illiterate. I had my first experience with the literacy problem when assigned to the Psychological Testing Unit at Fort Snelling, Minnesota in 1943. Illiterate recruits coming through that center were primarily from rural areas. It was also in the early forites that the first books concerned with reading in high school appeared: *Developmental Reading in High School* (1941) by Bond and Bond, and *Diagnosis and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools* (1946) by Blair.

The Census of 1950 broadened the definition of literacy for all those over age 14 to include the completion of five years of schooling and the ability to read and write. On this basis the nation's literacy level was listed at 96.8%. By 1950, 59% of 17-year-olds completed high school. But once again history repeated itself. In the Korean War draft 300,000 men were rejected the first year for what was called "educational reasons." The proportions of rejectees varied widely from one region of the country to another. The national rejection rate was 19.2% ranging from 58% of the men from South Carolina to a low of 5 to 7% from Minnesota, the Dakotas, and Montana. The manpower resources of the nation were so low that not only the Army but the Navy as well had to accept illiterate recruits and provide special training for them. Indiana University received a contract from the Navy to assist with the development and evaluation of its literacy programs. During the 1952-53 academic year I had my second encounter with the nation's literacy problem by serving as a consultant with the Navy working at its three basic training centers—San Diego, Bainbridge, and Great Lakes. The navy selection process took men with potential (average non-verbal IQ 101), and its special training programs enjoyed a high degree of success. The criterion was fourth-grade reading level. The draft experience of the Korean War, which resulted in uneven proportions of men being drafted from high achievement states, brought changes in the draft for the Vietnam War including deferments for educational purposes.

The Census of 1960 did not contain direct literacy data. If the schooling definition were used it is estimated that the population over 14 years of age was 98.1% literate. Of greater concern was the matter of functional literacy and how it was to be defined. By 1960, 65% of 17-year-olds completed high school, and the percent of functionally literate people was increasing. At the same time population growth was such that the actual number of functional illiterates increased somewhat. The movement of people from rural to urban areas also had significant impact on both statistics and programs. The new draft laws kept the military in the business of literacy training. In 1966 the military undertook Project 100,000 with the goal of training 100,000 functional illiterates annually.

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END

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related to adult literacy. The military draft brought a shock to the nation by revealing that of all men tested for the draft 25% were unable to read a newspaper or write a simple sentence. The 1917 Army draft tested a select group of people—the young with the most recent opportunity for schooling. Obviously the functional literacy level of the total adult population was much lower than the 75% level of the draftees. For the first time a functional definition was applied, and statistics were based on actual performance.

The war ended, but not the interest in literacy. The Census of 1920, using the same definition used previously, reported the nation was 94% literate. That year 16.8% of the 17-year-olds completed high school. The Army experience led to the establishment of illiteracy commissions in several states. In 1921 Maine and North Dakota passed legislation and organized programs to abolish illiteracy. In 1922, 10 additional states passed such legislation. In 1924 there was a National Illiteracy Conference in Washington and a National Illiteracy Crusade was conducted. In the same year the Sterling-Reed Bill was introduced in Congress. This bill sought to establish a Department of Education which, among other things, was to research illiteracy. Section 7 of the Bill read: "In order to encourage the States to remove illiteracy $7,500,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is authorized to be appropriated annually for the instruction of illiterates fourteen years of age and older." Section 8 provided an additional $7,500,000 for Americanization programs to teach immigrants to read and speak English. The bill did not pass, but, interestingly, proposed a larger budget than the Right to Read effort received when it was funded 45 years later. The concern for literacy continued and in 1929 President Hoover appointed an Advisory Committee on National Illiteracy. The idea was a good one but the timing was poor. The stock market crash and the subsequent depression drove illiteracy from its priority position.

The 1930's was the age of the New Deal in America. The census that year reported that the nation was 95.7% literate using the same definition of literacy that applied previously. That year the percent of 17-year-olds who completed high school increased to 29. This census did report additional literacy data. The illiteracy rate over the 1920-1930 period for whites had dropped from 4.0 to 2.7%; for blacks, from 22.9 to 16.3%; and for foreign born, from 13.1 to 9.9%. During this decade studies of illiteracy were undertaken, including its relationship to crime. WPA writing projects developed new instructional materials, and special experimental programs were undertaken. However, the national effort that was emerging in the mid-1920's did not reappear.

The 1940's brought a new crisis situation. The Census of 1940 did not report literacy data. However, it was estimated that the level of literacy, using the previous definition, was 97.1%. For the first time more than half (51%) of the 17-year-olds completed high school. In 1947 the census collected specific literacy information using as the definition of "literate," all people 14 years of age and older who had completed five or more years of schooling. Three million persons past the age of 14 had no schooling at all (3.0% of the population) and 11.5 million (11.5%) had less than five years or none at all. To grasp the significance of these figures and using 1940 as the base year, the number of functionally illiterate adults in this country was greater than the then combined adult populations of California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, Wyoming, Colorado, North and South Dakota, and Nebraska.

The Census Bureau conducted a special study in 1969 and reported that 99% of the population 14 years of age and older could read and write a simple message in English or another language. This data became the official statistic of the 1970's. In 1970, 76% of 17-year-olds completed high school and 31% of the 1972 high school graduates completed a bachelor's degree in 1976. About an equal percentage continued their education in some other form beyond the high school level. If the age group is expanded to from 16 to 22, 84% completed high school. The decade of the seventies is the period when the Right to Read effort was dedicated to elimination of illiteracy. The Adult Education Act of 1969, Public Law 89-10, and the Education Amendment of 1974 all gave reading skill statuatory recognition. Title VII of the 1974 amendment outlined a National Reading Improvement Program to be administered by the National Right to Read Office. Finally, in 1978, President Carter proposed a massive effort in the area of the basic skills.

And now to put all of this into a perspective—what do we conclude?

First, our society has made steady progress toward a totally literate society. The mere goal is significant for it reflects a people who care, and that goal is now more reasonable than at any point in our history.

Second, as our social, economic, and political development continues, the goal is not only that all persons achieve a basic level of literacy but also that a growing proportion of them achieve higher levels of performance. The increased percentages of persons completing high school and continuing to more advanced levels of education is one evidence that this is happening. In this connection, serious consideration needs to be given to the question, "Are we becoming too successful?" Higher levels of literacy for the mass of the population can no longer be justified on the basis of society's occupational needs. We are over-credentialed at all levels. The case for continued literacy development must be made on the basis of citizenship and personal development values—reasons enough in a free society.

Third, it makes good sense to be concerned about reading at the secondary school level. It is at this level that the basic skills of reading are applied as a means of learning in the different content areas. It is at this level that to read is to think, and it is at this level that the base is provided for effective learning at higher levels.

Is the present state of reading achievement a disaster that now calls for correction at the secondary level? Hardly. In truth the record is a proud one, and with the attention that will now be given to reading at the secondary level it will become even more so. The Golden Age of literacy is yet to come.

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Publications and Materials in Reading

Even though the process of reading is centuries old, educators are continuing to learn more about this comprehension mode and to pass understanding on to other educators.

In an effort to learn more about the reading process, the Indiana University Reading Education Program is active in research, and endeavors to communicate its findings in this area. Publications and materials available from the Program include Occasional Papers on such topics as:

1. Evaluation of materials, methods, techniques of reading;
2. Testing and measurement;
3. Critical and creative reading;
4. Teacher training and preservice education;
5. Literacy;
6. Reading in the content areas;
7. Cognitive and language development and reading;
8. Reading-thinking skills.

Teacher educators as well as preservice and inservice teachers may find these papers useful to expand their knowledge in reading or as a base for further research of their own.

In addition, two videotape series, *The Affective Dimension of Reading* and *The Language Base for Reading*, can be used in inservice and preservice teacher education programs, conferences, workshops, or college and university courses. The 12 programs in *The Affective Dimension of Reading* are designed to present concepts, strategies, and activities that have proven useful in motivating children to read. In *The Language Base for Reading*, the six presentations emphasize the teaching of reading. Presentations are made by many noted educators, including Bill Martin Jr., H. Alan Robinson, Jeanette Veatch, Carolyn Burke, Martha King, Richard Bamberger, Daniel Fader, and Kenneth Dulin. Each videotape series is accompanied by program guides and is available on a rental basis.

Another videotape training series (Lit-TV) for literacy instructors is available through the Audio-Visual Center at Indiana University.

Specific titles, costs, and other information are available from the Reading Education Program, Education 211, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401, (812)337-7167.